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**EOS**

Geology

Transactions, American Geophysical Union  
Vol. 65 No. 49 December 4, 1984

Eos, Transactions, American Geophysical Union

Vol. 65, No. 49, Pages 1201-1208

December 4, 1984

## Oceanography

### 4713 Circulation

NEAR EQUATORIAL CTD OBSERVATIONS AT 95°W IN OCTOBER 1982  
J. M. Toole (Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, MA 02543)  
CTD data collected about the equator along 95°W between 8 and 12 October 1982 are used to investigate stratification changes in the upper 1500 m associated with the 1982/83 El Niño. With respect to the thermal field observed in November 1982, virtually the entire section exhibited downward displacements in the upper kilometer of the water column. Observed displacements at the depth of the mean thermocline were large, ~150 m, and relatively symmetric about the equator. Displacements around 1 m depth were near zero. This stratification change appears to have been produced by a southward convergence of mass at temperatures above 15°C with divergence below. Latent and sensible heat fluxes from the surface, as well as wind-driven Ekman transport, are examined to see if they can account for the observed changes. The observations thus support current theories that relate El Niño onset in the eastern Pacific to anomalous wind forcing in the west. (21 refs, 14 tables, 1 figure, 10 pages)

J. Geophys. Res., C, Paper 4C1222.

4713 Circulation (Preliminary Report)  
SOME FEATURES OF THE ALGERIAN CURRENT  
Claude Millot (Antenne Méditerranée, 13 122, 83501 La Seyne-sur-Mer, France)  
An analysis of infrared images leads to a new conception of the dynamics of the Algerian Current. Since the current is not a simple jet, its structure is more complex than previously thought. In situ current measurements are not available but coherent hypotheses are presented with the aim to initiate further experimental and theoretical work.

The Algerian Current flows steadily along the coast near 36°N and becomes unstable near 37°N. Eddies of both signs are generated that are advected by the mean current, but only the anticyclonic eddies increase in size (diameter of about 100 km). As they extend more energy from the mean current, they are advected more slowly. They may detach from the coast and drift for several weeks in the Algerian Basin. They grow as deep as a thousand meters at least and they are able to pull thousands of intermediate water masses from the Sicilian continental slope.

Coastal upwelling cells are generated near 37°N between the cyclonic and the anticyclonic eddies; they are also advected by the mean current and are definitively not wind-induced. These coastal structures create a strong mixing between the Atlantic and Mediterranean waters, which accounts for the large seaward gradient of salinity encountered in the surface layer.

Therefore, the Algerian Basin is characterized by a large mesoscale variability mainly due to the instability of the Algerian Current. It appears to be a reservoir in which the water of Atlantic origin is stored, and it forms a buffer zone which delays the time of Atlantic water coming in the Mediterranean Sea. Since the current is strongly influenced by the flow of highly modified Atlantic water entering the basin through the Strait of Sicily and the Ligurian Sea, coastal upwelling and mesoscale variability are controlled by the large-scale circulation in the Mediterranean Sea.

J. Geophys. Res., C, Paper 4C1226

4713 Circulation  
STRUCTURE AND SEASONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE  
J. Benoit (Boltz Cell) Canada Ltd., P.O. Box 63, St-John's, Newfoundland, Canada A1C 6C9, N.E. St-John's and C.I. Benoit  
CTD and current data from the northeastern Gulf of St. Lawrence were analyzed to study the structure and variability of the Gulf Current. Since the current is buoyancy-driven, its properties are strongly influenced by the seasonal variation of the freshwater discharge from the St. Lawrence River. From July to November, maximum speed increases from 110 cm s<sup>-1</sup> to 60 cm s<sup>-1</sup>.

With vertical shears exist in the upper 40 m of the water column. During the same period, the width of the current decreases and the position of the current maximum shifts from near the shore to about 14 km from the shore. These changes in the structure can be understood in terms of geostrophic and baroclinic deformation fields. In the temperature/salinity field, the most prominent change from June to November is the continuing increase of surface salinity. Temperature change occurs mainly in the September-November period, when atmospheric cooling accelerates. The effect of atmospheric cooling is also reflected in the density distribution, with the result that in November currents in the upper 30 m are seaward in the entire section from Sept.-Oct. to March-April. While in the summer months, the currents are seaward in the southern part and westward in the northern part of the section. Momentum balance of the current system is also investigated. It was found that east of Pointe-à-la-Peine, geostrophic balance is maintained while west of Pointe-à-la-Peine the observations do not seem to be consistent with the assumption of geostrophy. (15 refs, 10 pages, 1 figure, 1 table, 10 pages)

J. Geophys. Res., C, Paper 4C1227.

4799 General (Ice Modeling)  
SENSITIVITY OF A THERMODYNAMIC SEA ICE MODEL WITH LEADS TO THIS STEP SIZE

Tamara Shapira-Lishchinsky (Department of Space Physics and Astronomy, Rice University, Houston, TX 77005)  
A thermodynamic sea ice model which is numerically structured to take time steps as small as a week is found to be sensitive to time step size when sea ice forms on open ocean in summer. This sensitivity is caused by the extrapolation of initial ice growth rates on open ocean, which can be very high, over the length of the time step. The sensitivity to time step size is tremendously reduced when the parameterization for the formation of new ice is altered so that the new ice thickness is specified. However, the sensitivity continues during the winter when the area of open ocean is small because the volume of ice formed over the time step is more than enough to fill the open area at the specified thickness. Therefore, ice thickness during the winter is again determined by time step size. Suggestions are made on how the sea ice model's sensitivity to time step size can be further reduced without sacrificing computational efficiency. (See ice models, time step size)

J. Geophys. Res., D, Paper 4D1311

## Particles and Fields—Magnetosphere

5710 Interaction between Solar Wind and Magnetosphere  
POLAR CORRELATION

Robert M.ather (Physics Department, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, MA 02167)  
The position of the dayside magnetopause (as measured from South Pole station in 1981) is compared to the interplanetary magnetic field  $B_z$  component and to the  $A_z$  index. The results are consistent with earlier work showing a close relationship with  $A_z$  and little correlation with  $B_z$ . The recent papers have presented data that were interpreted to indicate a dominant  $B_z$  correlation. A reanalysis of the data sets used in these papers does not support dominant  $B_z$  dependence, and in fact indicates a dominant  $A_z$  dependence. The position of the dayside magnetopause is largely controlled by ambient geomagnetic conditions, and is not significantly affected by direct magnetic reconnection processes with the interplanetary field. (Polar map, 10 pages)

J. Geophys. Res., A, Paper 4A4229

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# The Eastern Maritime Boundary Between the United States and Canada

David A. Brooks

Department of Oceanography, Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas

## Introduction

The easternmost part of the United States is separated from Canada by an imaginary line in the ocean. The oceanic boundary is evidence of the extensive marine heritage of the state of Maine and the Canadian province of New Brunswick. The International Court of Justice at The Hague (the "World Court") recently handed down a decision which extended the boundary line across the Gulf of Maine and Georges Bank. The action was intended to resolve a long-standing controversy over fishing rights on Georges Bank (Eos, 65, (45), p. 801, 1984). The extension of the line adds a modern chapter to a maritime boundary dispute which is older than the government of either nation. The controversy is rooted in imprecise language used in the Treaty of Paris, which officially separated the nascent United States from Great Britain in 1783. Faced with sorting out the implications of the recent boundary decision, it is well to recall and perhaps benefit from the long history of related events, most of which had serious economic and personal consequences for residents on each side of the border.

## Past

In the summer of 1604, Sieur de Monts and his pilot, Samuel de Champlain, passed through the islands of a North American bay and ascended a river which they found on its western side (Figure 1). On an island in the river estuary, they founded the first non-native settlement on these shores. The island was named Isle de la Croix because river branches above the island formed the shape of a cross. The Indians called the bay Passamaquoddy, which referred to great quantities of pollock taken there; and they called the river Schoodic, which meant a "great clear place" burned by forest fires (Kilby, 1884). The settlers suffered a disastrous winter. In the spring, the survivors abandoned the island and eventually moved to Port Royal (now Annapolis Royal), Nova Scotia, where a French colony was already established. Although the settlement failed, it set a precedent which ultimately determined that the international boundary would lie in the Schoodic River, which later became known as the St. Croix River (Figure 1). This seems straightforward today, but the matter was confused at the time of the American Revolution,

because a different Passamaquoddy river (the Magaguadavic) was then known as the St. Croix.

The Treaty of Paris specified that the eastern boundary was to be given by a line "...along the middle of St. Mary's River [in mid-Florida] to the Atlantic Ocean, [then] east to a line to be drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its source..." To apply the terms of the treaty, it was first necessary to resolve the confusion over which was the "true" St. Croix River and then to decide where its mouth was located. A boundary commission was appointed in 1794, but the matter remained unsettled until 1798, 10 years after the United States Constitution was ratified. In the meantime, Loyalist refugees founded the town of St. Andrews between the two rivers, in the contested region.

The British commissioners initially argued that the St. Croix River mouth was located in the upper Schoodic estuary. From there they extended the boundary line directly toward Florida, following the treaty instructions literally (solid line, Figure 1). The line left in British possession part of the mainland and all of the Passamaquoddy Islands. At the time, Moose Island supported a population of about 20 families, who considered themselves citizens of the United States.

The United States commissioners initially took the equally untenable position that the Magaguadavic River was the true St. Croix. Their argument was based on local testimony and an inaccurate map dating from about 1760 (the same map used in drafting the Treaty of Paris). The boundary line claimed by the United States, also shown on Figure 1 (dashed line), retained Moose and Grand Manan Islands, but it excluded Campobello Island, where British precedent was clearly established.

After 4 years of deliberation, the commission finally decided that the Schoodic was the river in question and that its mouth was properly located at the estuary confluence near St. Andrews. The Schoodic was chosen partly because alewives, herring, and bass were known to be exceedingly abundant there; this agreed with similar observations recorded by Sieur de Monts 185 years earlier. The river mouth was located near St. Andrews because whales and grampuses were found farther south; in the commissioners' view, this made the lower Schoodic estuary

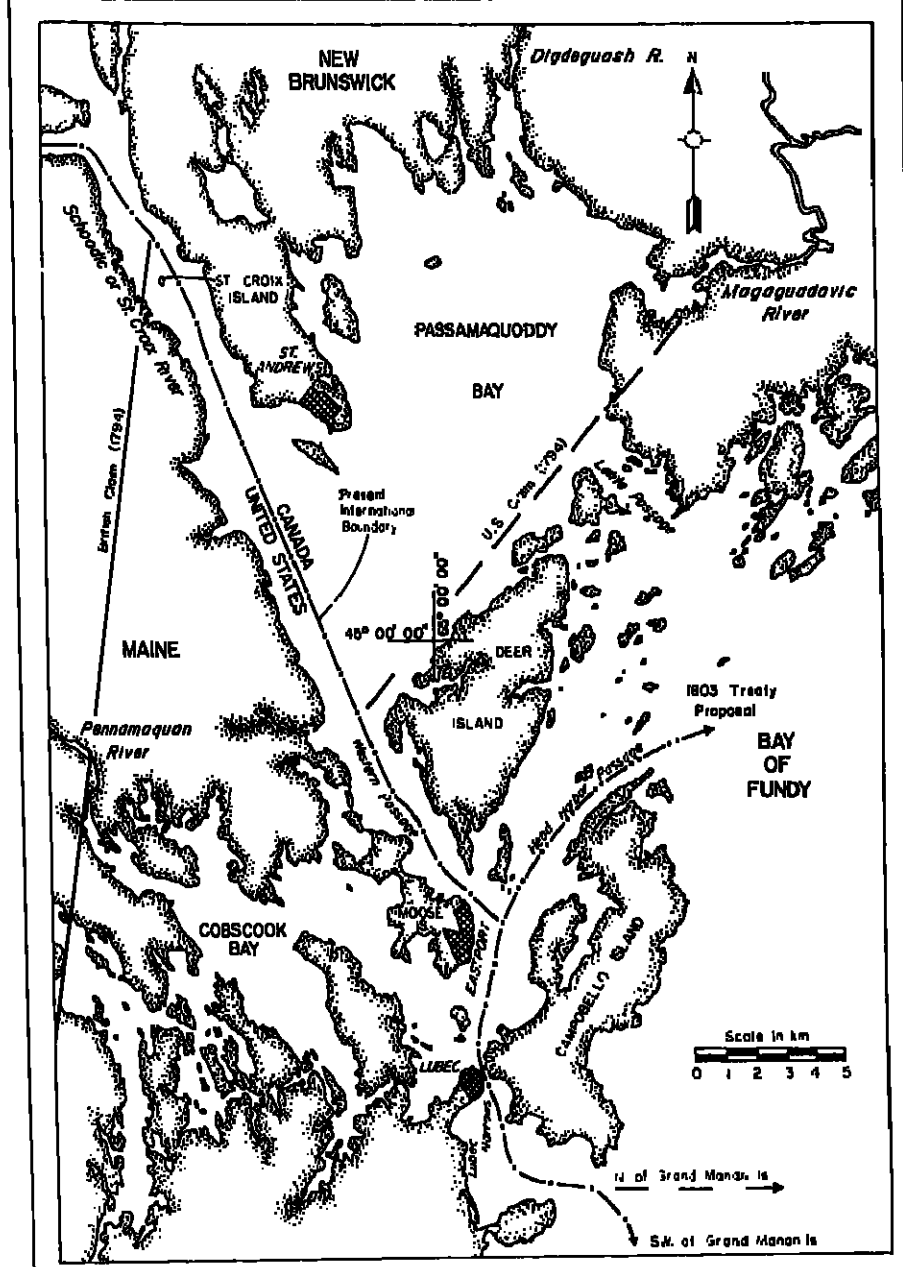


Fig. 1. Map of the Passamaquoddy Bay region, showing the present international boundary. Also shown are approximations to the lines initially claimed by the British and United States sides when the Boundary Commission convened in 1794 to implement the terms of the Treaty of Paris (Kilby, 1884). The line dividing Head Harbour Passage, which is the principal channel connecting Passamaquoddy Bay with the Bay of Fundy, was proposed in an 1808 treaty which was not ratified. De Monts' 1604 settlement was on St. Croix Island (Isle de la Croix) in the river then known as the Schoodic, but now named the St. Croix.

part of the bay and not the river. Key testimony was given by Captain Timothy Folger of Nantucket, who had taken a whale in the estuary. The same Folger provided whalers' information which Benjamin Franklin used in his 1769 chart of the Gulf Stream. Having discharged its assigned duties, the commission disbanded in 1798 without extending the boundary line from the newly determined river mouth to the Bay of Fundy, thus leaving the islands' nationality unresolved. The town of Eastport was incorporated on Moose Island in the same year.

The early nineteenth century was typified by growing tensions in the Passamaquoddy region. Jurisdictional claims over Moose Island were pressed with increasing fervor by the British side, while Eastport grew in size and prosperity. During this time, two treaties were negotiated which would have resolved the issue, but neither was ratified by the United States because of difficulties over wording in unrelated articles. The 1803 treaty attempt is especially significant, because it proposed that the line should descend the Western Passage, as it presently does, but then turn northward between Deer and Campobello Islands (dashed double-dotted line, Figure 1), thereby providing equal access to the primary channel between Passamaquoddy Bay and the Bay of Fundy. Campobello was uncontested, as before. This equitable proposition failed, and consequently vessels bound into or out of United States ports in Passamaquoddy Bay must pass through Canadian waters. The Lubec Narrows, through which the present boundary line passes, is a hazardous channel with very strong tidal currents and a low bridge.

Soon after the Embargo Act of 1807, a military fort was built and garrisoned on Moose Island. Guns were mounted and trained on the harbor. As the embargo lightened, smuggling became openly prominent, attracting adventurers from great distances on both sides of the border. Under cover of darkness and fog, small-boat traffic was lively, and an international trade in contraband flourished for several years (Brown, 1968). This was certainly the most colorful, if not the most admirable, period in Moose Island history.

War was finally declared in June of 1812. In July 1814, just 5 months before the Treaty of Ghent ended the hostilities, a British military fleet of at least 10 vessels, including a 74-gun ship-of-the-line, sailed up Head Harbor Passage on the flooding tide. The fleet was commanded by Admiral Thomas Hardy, who landed at Eastport under a flag of truce and demanded immediate surrender of the fort and town. The fort's commander was con-

victed to take this prudent action, which certainly saved the town from destruction by the vastly superior British force. Without a shot being fired, troops occupied the town, and the Union Jack flew over the island until 1818.

Moose Island was a major point of contention in the negotiations leading to the Treaty of Ghent. To achieve the peace, it was necessary to refer the island issue to a new commission for resolution. The commission met for the first time late in 1816 and rendered its decision about a year later. In the end, the British side agreed to relinquish its claim to Moose Island in return for uncontested sovereignty over Grand Manan Island. Finally, in June of 1818, the troops left Moose Island, and for the first time its residents took clear title to United States citizenship. The boundary line was officially extended through the Lubec Narrows into Grand Manan Channel (Figure 1, dashed-dotted line).

## Prologue

On October 12, 1984, the World Court reached a compromise decision which extended the boundary line across the Gulf of Maine and the eastern third of Georges Bank (Figure 2). Both countries agreed in advance to accept the court's decision. Previously, the United States had claimed a "Fishery Conservation Zone," bounded by a line that extended from the center of Grand Manan Channel across the deepest part of Jordan Bank and then out the center of Northeast Channel (dashed line, Figure 2). The new line provides Canadian access to the rich Georges Bank fishing grounds known as Northeast Peak, which had previously been claimed entirely by the United States. The decision leaves each country with roughly equal areas of shoal fishing banks on the outer continental shelf. The new line also provides additional United States access to the deep waters of Jordan Basin.

Surface currents generally move in a counterclockwise direction inside the Gulf of Maine and in a clockwise direction around the edge of Georges Bank (Diggle, 1927; Bumpus and Lewis, 1955; Bulman et al., 1982; Smith, 1983). In the spring and summer, waters from Wilkinson Basin move eastward in a narrow current which flows along the inner edge of Georges Bank. The current follows the depth contours around the Northeast Peak and out the Northeast Channel (Figure 2). There is an inflow at most depths on the northeastern side of the Northeast Channel

Article (cont. on p. 1210)



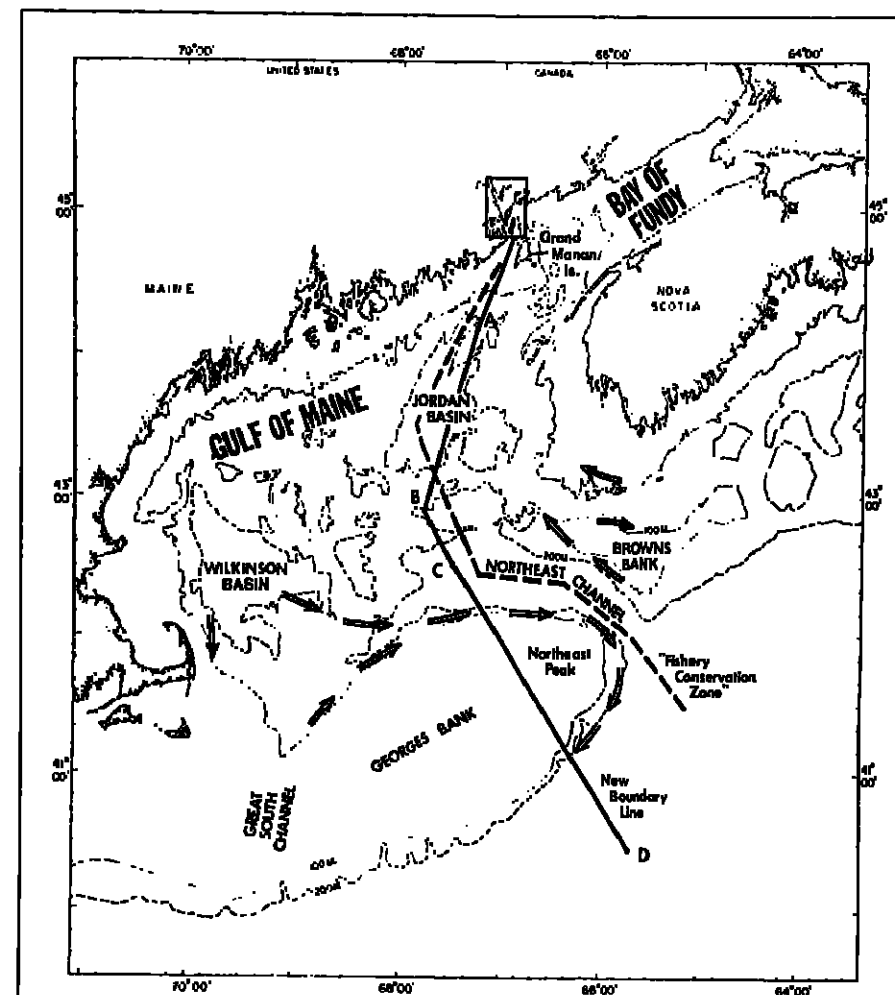


Fig. 2. Map of the Gulf of Maine-Georges Bank region, showing the new boundary line and the old "Fishery Conservation Zone" line. The new line is determined by the following coordinates (U.S. Coast Guard, Notice to Mariners, 42, October 16, 1984): (A) 44°11'12" N, 67°16'46" W; (B) 42°53'14" N, 67°44'35" W; (C) 42°31'08" N, 67°28'05" W; and (D) 40°27'05" N, 65°41'59" W. The arrows show elements of the surface circulation in the Gulf and around the banks. The inset box shows the region covered by the map in Figure 1.

(S. Ramp et al., unpublished manuscript, 1984). The deep water spreads northward and westward into the interior basins. Less is known about the winter currents, but as the season progresses, the jetlike flow along the inner edge of the bank weakens, and the water develops a seaward movement across the top of the bank.

The prominent Georges Bank fishery includes scallops, cod, halibut, haddock, and herring. The richness of the fishery is partly due to tidal stirring of the shoal bank waters, which brings nutrients to the surface (Garrett et al., 1978; Yentsch and Garfield, 1981; Brown, 1984). The current from the western gulf also carries nutrients, which can be injected

onto the top of Georges Bank by upwelling, lateral mixing, or other physical processes (Hopkins and Garfield, 1981). Primary production is most vigorous along the northern edge and on the Northeast Peak of Georges Bank, and the clockwise circulation around the bank seems to confine and enrich the fishery on the Northeast Peak (Flagg et al., 1982).

Atlantic slope water enters the Gulf of Maine only through the Northeast Channel, which lies entirely on the Canadian side of the new boundary line. Slope water carries important amounts of heat and salt, and these strongly influence the interior oceanic climate of the Gulf. In the spring, slope water accumulates in an inner depression of the Northeast Channel, where middle-depth Atlantic fish species (e.g., tuna) may be more abundant.

The Northeast Channel is also the principal navigational channel connecting the Gulf of Maine with the Atlantic Ocean. Consequently, vessels bound to and from ports in the gulf will have to pass through Canadian waters or use the shallower Great South Channel. The additional complexity may only be an inconvenience for shipping, but it echoes the much earlier instance in which international access to ports in Passamaquoddy Bay was similarly lost.

# Summary

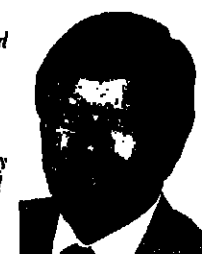
The maritime boundary between the United States and Canada was recently extended across the Gulf of Maine and Georges Bank by a decision of the World Court. The decision gives the two countries roughly equal access to the shallow bank areas of the outer continental shelf between Cape Cod and Nova Scotia, but it does not allow for the fact that the prevailing ocean currents tend to concentrate the fishery toward the eastern end of Georges Bank. The decision further places the deep Northeast Channel entirely within Canadian jurisdiction. As a result, vessels bound between Europe and ports in the Gulf of Maine must pass through Canadian waters or use the more distant and shallower Great South Channel.

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David A. Brooks is a physical oceanographer and an associate professor of oceanography at Texas A&M University. He was raised in Eastport, Maine, and attended the University of Maine, where he earned a B.S. degree in electrical engineering. Subsequently, he earned M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in oceanography at the University of Miami. He is presently conducting a research program on the Gulf of Maine, which shows the cyclic nature of history and makes for a long commute.



# News

## Acid Rain Stone Test Sites

As a part of the United States National Acid Precipitation Assessment Program, Task Group G: Effects on Materials and Cultural Resources, which is chaired by Ray Herrmann, the National Park Service has established four test sites for 10-year testing of two kinds of dimension stone used in buildings and monuments. The four sites are (from south to north) Research Triangle Park near Raleigh, N. C. (activated May 25, 1984); the roof of the West End Branch of the Washington, D. C. Library (activated August 11, 1984); the Department of Energy Compound at the Environmental Measurements Laboratory of Bell Telephone Laboratories near Chester, N. J. (activated June 5, 1984); and Hamiltonburg Wildlife Forest in the Adirondack Mountains, Newcomb, N. Y. (activated June 10, 1984).

Salem limestone from near Bedford, Ind., and the Royal variety of Shelburne marble from near Danby, Vt., were selected for testing. Although "granite" is the most commonly used dimension stone, detectable effects in the 10-year testing period are not assured. Caliper measurements on marble tombstones, etc. (N. S. Baer and S. M. Bernan, "Marble tombstones in national cemeteries as indicators of stone damage," in Proc. Ann. Meet. Air Pollut. Control Assoc., 83 (5.7), 1983) and disappearance of the polish from marble stone fronts in less than 10 years (E. M. Winkler, "The measurement of weathering rates," in Assoc. Fratern. Technol. Bull., in press) indicated that detectable effects should be observed in carbonate rocks. In addition, T. N. Skoulikidis ("Atmospheric corrosion of concrete reinforcements, limestones, and marbles," in Atmospheric Corrosion, edited by W. H. Ailor, pp. 807-824, John Wiley, N. Y., 1982) ascertained, from molds made in the 1920's of ancient marble statues plus subsequent photographs, that degradation of the Acropolis rapidly accelerated over the last 20-25 years, coincident with the industrialization of Greece and the use of high-sulfur fuels.

After granite, limestone is the second most widely used dimension stone. The Salem limestone has provided 53% of the total limestone dimension stone used in the United

States in the period 1980-1980 (J. P. D'Agostino and R. J. Alessek, "Present status of the dimension stone industry," USGS administrative report, Geol. Div., Reston, Va., 1984). Many well-known buildings are built, at least in part, of this stone. These buildings include the Empire State Building in New York City and the National Cathedral in Washington, D. C.

Georgia and Vermont have produced comparable dollar amounts of marble. The Shelburne marble of Vermont more often receives a polish, and the quarries are more centrally located in the area of greatest concern over acid rain. Therefore the Royal variety of Shelburne marble was chosen. The Royal variety contains silicate patterns mainly of chlorite and secondary of phlogopite. The Jefferson Memorial and the new French Embassy in Washington, D. C., are examples of structures faced with Shelburne marble.

Samples exposed are mainly of two kinds: slabs that are 0.31 x 0.61 m and briquettes that are 7.31 x 8.25 cm. All samples are 5.08 cm thick. Briquettes are exposed in racks of polypropylene (for trace element purity). Installation of the sites was done by National Bureau of Standards (NBS) and the National Park Service. Current experiments on slabs involve analysis of the chemistry of runoff water by Michael Reddy of the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) Water Resources Division in Denver, Colo. Experiments on briquettes include nondestructive visual and near-infrared measurements by Larry Rowan and Marguerite Kingston, destructive mineralogical and chemical profiling by Malcolm Ross, and documentary photography by Deborah Dworinik, all of the USGS Geologic Division in Reston, Va. American Society for Testing and Materials color change measurements are being made by Larry Knab, NBS, Gaithersburg, Md.

C. Arthur Youngdahl of the Argonne National Laboratory, Chicago, Ill., is leading a number of experiments. The first is monitoring surface chemistry change by using 0.8-mm-thick shavings from the surfaces of briquettes. A second is weight loss. Another is measurement of surface roughness and recession by holographic laser moiré contouring being done by Cesar Schmitt of the Illinois Institute of Technology and Argonne National Laboratory (ANL). The last experiment, performed by William Primak of ANL,

gauges surface recession occurring from individual precipitation events by using Twyman-Green interferometry, which utilizes mercury vapor light. Both of the surface recession methods measure the height of steps that develop between protected and unprotected areas of samples.

In early results on samples from Research Triangle Park, the pH of rain has been about 4.0-4.2, whereas the pH of runoff water is close to 8. There is little doubt of the rapid reaction of acid precipitation with the carbonate test stones. After a 3.81-cm rainfall with a pH of about 4.2 an irregular "sag" of 0-0.3 micrometers was found in the event surface recession sample on highly polished marble half briquettes, although no detectable recession was observed on the more porous Salem limestone. Measurable effects on the two types of test stones over the 10-year period of the experiments seem assured.

This news item was contributed by Susan I. Sherwood, Preservation Assistance Division, National Park Service, Washington, D. C., and Bruce R. Doe, U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Va.

## Marginal Ice Zone

Preliminary reports from the 1984 Marginal Ice Zone Experiment (MIZE 84), said to be the "largest coordinated Arctic experiment conducted in the marginal ice zone," are now available. Over 200 scientists and technicians, utilizing seven ships, eight remote sensing/meteorological aircraft, and four helicopters, converged on the Arctic last May to study the mesoscale processes responsible for the advance and retreat of the Arctic ice margin. Much of the data collected will be used to answer basic questions such as what factors influence the position, movement, and melting of the ice edge. Modelers will use the data to improve predictions of the motion and behavior of the Arctic marginal ice. Each year the polar ice field can migrate to the north or south as much as 600 km. New surface and boundary conditions can affect weather patterns of the entire northern hemisphere. Ten countries—Canada, Denmark, the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, France, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, the United

Kingdom, and the United States—took part in the experiment, which was conducted from May 18 through July 30 in the Fram Strait area between Greenland and Svalbard. The USNS Lynch began MIZE 84 in May with the deployment of an array of current meters and an acoustic source in the open water areas of the Fram Strait. An open water CTD (Conductivity, Temperature, and Depth) transect also was completed.

Ice dynamics and ice physics studies were conducted from the *Palaqueva*, *Polarstern*, and *Kvidbjorn*. These studies included extensive tracking of an array of ARGOS drifting oceanographic-meteorological buoys and transponders. Ocean current data was collected by such instruments as subsurface drifters, surface ARGOS buoys, and current meters anchored and suspended from ice floes. For

## Proceedings of the International Association of Geodesy (IAG) Symposia

Proceedings of the IUGG XVIII General Assembly, held in Hamburg, FRG, August 15-27, 1983. Coverage includes the role of gravimetry in geodynamics, improved gravity field estimations on a global basis, geodynamic aspects of the earth's rotation, the future of terrestrial and space methods for positioning, geodetic reference systems, and strategies for solving geodetic problems in developing countries.

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synoptic characterizations of the marginal ice zone, extensive passive-active microwave remote sensing investigations were conducted by both aircraft and in situ platforms. In late November, scientists involved in MIZE met at the Naval Postgraduate School in Monterey, Calif., to plan for the analysis of data and to begin initial development of a plan for future MIZE programs.

## Attrition of NASA Scientists

During the past 3½ years the number of physical scientists employed by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) has dropped by more than 15%. The number of mathematicians personnel also dropped by about 13%. NASA says these figures represent a trend to increase the agency's emphasis on its primary activity—aerospace engineering—that began with the completion of the Apollo missions. For the same period the number of NASA personnel falling into the categories of aerospace engineering and electronic engineering

increased slightly—by 1.2% and 3.1%, respectively. The decrease in both total NASA personnel and total scientific work force was about the same: NASA's scientific work force declined about 2.8%, compared with a total agency work force decrease of 2.9%.

These findings are contained in a study conducted by the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO), "Attrition of Scientists and Engineers at Seven Agencies," on employment levels of scientific personnel at seven agencies between September 30, 1979, and June 30, 1983.

Of the agencies studied, NASA lost by far the fewest scientific and engineering personnel. Only one agency, the National Institutes of Health (NIH), showed any increase in its scientific work force. NIH's scientific work force grew by 3.2%. Overall, NIH increased its total work force by about 7% during the period of the study. The largest decrease in both total agency work force and scientific personnel was felt by the Consumer Product Safety Commission (CPSC), which experienced decreases of 36.7% and 31.5%, respectively.

## Recent Ph.D.'s

For periodically lists information on recently accepted doctoral dissertations in the disciplines of geophysics. Faculty members are invited to submit the following information, on institution letterhead, above the signature of the faculty advisor or department chairman:

- (1) the dissertation title,
- (2) author's name,
- (3) name of the degree-granting department and institution,
- (4) faculty advisor,
- (5) month and year degree was awarded.

If possible, include the current address and telephone number of the degree recipient (this information will not be published).

Dissertations with order numbers, and many of the others listed, are available from University Microfilms International, Dissertation Copies, P.O. Box 1764, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

## Hydrology

Multiojective Optimization of Streamwater Detention for Stream Channel Protection, Charles J. Richman, Dept. of Geography and Environmental Engineering, The Johns Hopkins Univ. (Charles S. ReVelle), October 1984.

Statistical Characterization and Numerical Simulation of a Fracture System: Application to Groundwater Flow in the Shipa Granite, Alain Rouleau, Dept. of Earth Sciences, Univ. of Waterloo (John E. Gale), October 1984.

## Ocean Sciences

Multi-Property Modeling of the Marine Biosphere in Relation to Global Carbon and Climate Cycles, Tyler Volk, Dept. of Applied Science, New York Univ. (Martin I. Hoffert), June 1984.

Seasonal Thermohaline Stratification and Shelf Water - Slope Water Interaction in the Middle Atlantic Bight, Frank Alkman III, Dept. of Geological Sciences, Columbia Univ. (Arnold L. Gordon), October 1984.

## Solid Earth

A Comparison of Seismic Properties of Young and Mature Oceanic Crust, Michel Bee, Dept. of Geophysics, College of Oceanography, Oregon State Univ. (Randy Jacobson), March 1984.

Crustal Structure and Seismicity of the Gorda Ridge, Ariel E. Solano-Borego, Dept. of Geophysics, College of Oceanography, Oregon State Univ., October 1984.

Geologic Interpretation of Remote Sensing Data for the Marian Volcano Arcuate Mts, James Ray Zimbelman, Dept. of Geology, Arizona State Univ. (Ronald Greeley), December 1984.

## Space Science

Jupiter's Ring System Resolved: Physical Properties Inferred from the Voyager Images, Mark R. Showalter, Dept. of Astronomy, Cornell Univ. (Joseph A. Burns), January 1985.

## Correction

The earthquakes table in "Geophysical Events" (Eos, November 27, 1984, p. 1198) listed an October 18 earthquake in Senkaya, eastern Turkey, at 42.50°W longitude. The correct longitude is 42.50°E. This report is an excerpt from the Smithsonian Institution's *SEAN Bulletin*, 9(10), October 31, 1984.

**FACULTY:** Are your students getting the best deal on geophysical journal subscriptions? Recommend membership in AGU — special student prices on dues and journals.

# Books

## Geochemical Aspects of Radioactive Waste Disposal

D. G. Brooks, Springer-Verlag, New York, xiii + 347 pp., 1984, \$44.50.

Reviewed by Judith B. Moody

The author's stated purpose in writing this book is to summarize the large number of government-sponsored research reports on the geochemical aspects of high-level nuclear waste isolation. Although this book has a 1984 publication date, the majority of the cited documents were published before 1982. Unfortunately, passage of the Nuclear Waste Policy Act (NWPA) of 1982 and its signing into law by President Reagan (January 1983) [U.S. Congress, 1983] has significantly altered the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) Civilian Radioactive Waste Management (CRWM) Program. Therefore this book does not accurately reflect the present U.S. program in geologic disposal of high-level nuclear waste. For example, chapter 2, "Radioactive Waste Management," is almost 3 years out of date in a field that is changing rapidly (see U.S. DOE [1984a] for the current status of the CRWM Program). Additionally, the source material, which forms the input for this book, is chiefly grey literature, i.e., the referenced documents may or may not have undergone peer review and therefore do not represent the technical judgment of the scientific community. Also, this book only presents a selective sampling of information because the literature cited does not include a representative selection of the widespread available literature on this topic.

The geochemical aspects covered in this book are natural radiation effects (chapter 3), the different types of radioactive waste (chapter 4), generic and specific geologic sites (chapters 5 and 7), applications of geochemistry in potential element mobility (chapter 6), use of natural analogs (chapter 11), waste form durability (chapter 12), the engineered barrier system (chapter 13), and minimum soil radings (chapter 10). This range of addressed topics clearly outlines the importance of geochemistry to the CRWM Program, a position also emphasized by U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) [Appa et al., 1983] and other geoscientists [Bird and Fye, 1982].

The treatment of most subjects is simplistic and inadequate because of the necessity for the work accomplished in the CRWM Program to meet regulatory requirements [U.S. NRC, 1983a; U.S. EPA, 1982] and those requirements specified by the NWPA, including the siting guidelines [U.S. DOE, 1984b]. A few specific examples from chapters 6, 7 and 11 are treated below.

Issues related to geologic siting are addressed in a cursory fashion in chapters 6 and 7. The author states (p. 69) that "Of the many rocks available on the earth's surface, the geologic conditions are best met by bedded salt, dense salt, granites, basalt, argillaceous rocks and tuffaceous rocks." From this general statement, which includes a significant percentage of the rocks in the earth's crust, the reader is strongly led to think that any crustal rock could be used as a site for a high-level nuclear waste repository. Examination of the U.S. DOE [1982] and U.S. NRC [1983a] documents pertaining to the geologic site characterization of the Hanford basin site will demonstrate the complexity of meeting the requirements and specifications for characterizing a specific site. Adequate geologic, hydrologic, and geochemical characterization of any site (regardless of host rock type) will require the best scientific and engineering knowledge and data acquisition (integrated laboratory, field, in situ testing, and modeling efforts) in order to meet the requirements governing the CRWM Program.

The author states in his preface that natural analogs will be emphasized wherever possible. The term "natural analog" is applied to observations of the geologic record as it is preserved in rocks, which compose the earth's crust, to obtain information on material's stability as applied to the engineered barrier system (waste form, canister overpack material, any potential backfill material) and the host rock. Natural analogs can also be studied to evaluate the potential migration/retardation behavior of radionuclides during geologic time frames (i.e., of the order of millions of years). Major topics covered in chapter 11 on natural analogs include specific geologic examples and the application of Eh-pH diagrams as a predictive tool for geochemical radionuclide behavior because Eh calculations are done assuming equilibrium conditions with a poorly known thermodynamic data base at a certain set of fixed conditions (constant temperature, pressure, and fluid composition) and (2) the assumption of equilibrium may not be applicable to the near-field geochronological conditions in a high-level nuclear waste repository where the effects of heat and radiation on the host rock and engineered barrier system will require consideration of nonequilibrium kinetic reactions. Lundberg and Rasmussen [1984] have also shown that most ambient surface waters are not in a state of internal redox equilibrium. They have therefore raised the issue of whether calculated Eh-pH diagrams should be utilized for prediction of radionuclide behavior even in the ambient far-field groundwaters at a specific site because Eh is not an equilibrium variable in those groundwaters.

Books (cont. on p. 1212)

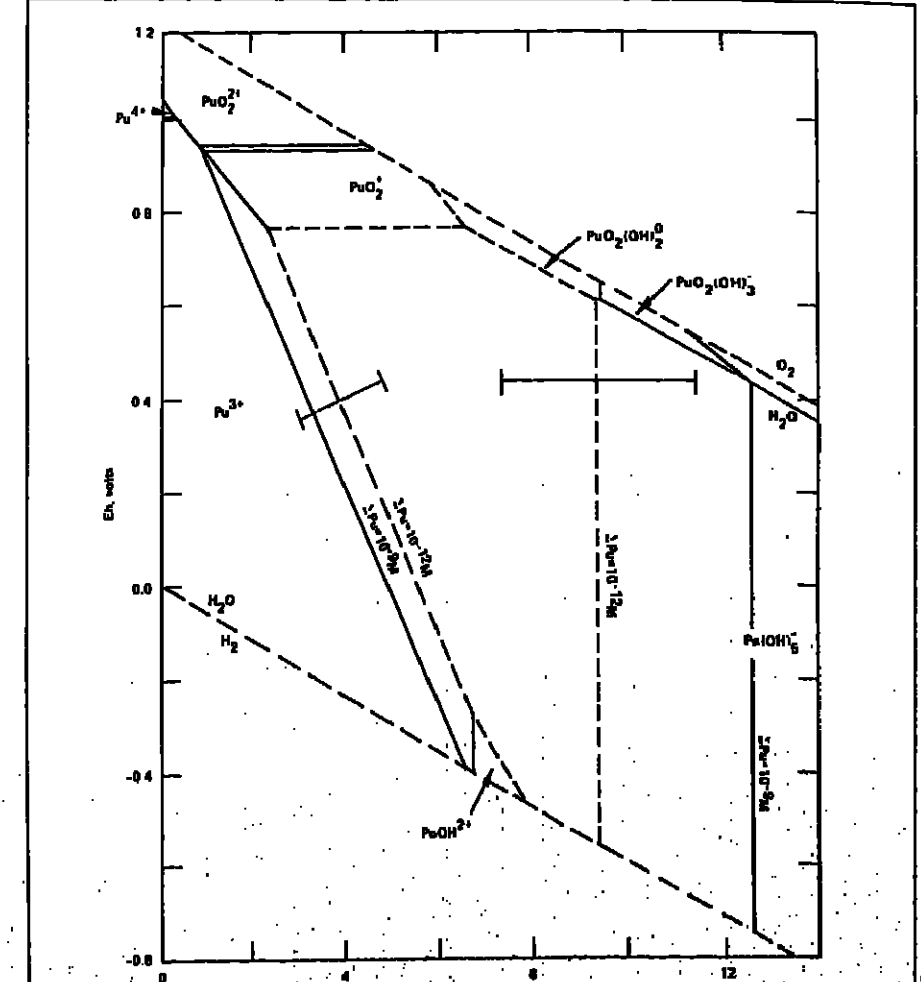


Fig. 1. Eh-pH diagram calculated at 25°C, 0.1 MPa by K. Krauskopf in the work of Eisenbud et al. [1981] for plutonium complexes in equilibrium with crystalline PuO<sub>2</sub> (utilizing largely the data from Allard et al. [1980] for plutonium). Solid lines outline the field where total dissolved Pu is less than 10<sup>-6</sup> molar; dashed lines where total dissolved Pu is less than 10<sup>-8</sup> molar. Error bars are placed on the two plutonium lines to indicate the degree of uncertainty in the basic thermodynamic data from which the diagram was constructed; unmarked lines have uncertainties similar to the left-hand error bar. In other words, the lines should be replaced by bands the width of the bars, but this was not done for better clarity in the diagram (from Moody, 1982).



The Department of Physics and Astronomy anticipates openings for two tenure-track assistant professors in August 1985. Preference for one of these positions will be given to an experimentalist. In an exceptional case a term or tenured appointment at the associate professor or professor level will be considered. In addition, one or more openings for visiting faculty members at any level are anticipated. Current research interests in the department are radio and optical astronomy and the following specialties in physics: atomic, condensed matter, elementary particle, laser, nuclear, plasma, and space physics. Faculty duties include undergraduate and graduate teaching, guidance of research students, and personal research. Interested persons should submit a résumé and a statement of research interests and arrange for three letters of recommendation to be sent to Search Committee, Department of Physics and Astronomy, The University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242.







## Meetings (cont. from p. 1215)

Annual Eastern Snow Conference Student Paper Contest (with a prize of \$100 and up to \$350 in expenses to attend the conference) should contact Don Taylor, Chairman, Research Committee ESC, National Research Council Canada, M-20, Montreal Road, Ottawa, KIA 0R6, Canada.

## Radiocarbon Conference

June 24-28, 1985 12th International Radiocarbon Conference, Trondheim, Norway. (12th International Radiocarbon Conference, Attn: Pat Ueland, Studies and Academic Administration, Norwegian Institute of Technology, N-7034 Trondheim-NTH, Norway.)

The deadline for the submission of abstracts is January 1, 1985. The aim of the conference is to bring together researchers from various fields with a common interest in  $^{14}\text{C}$ . Among the major topics for discussion will be the possible causes of  $^{14}\text{C}$  variations in the past, the contribution of  $^{14}\text{C}$  to knowledge of the carbon cycle in nature, the latest developments in accelerator mass spectrometry and mini gas counters for dating very small samples, the possible sources of error that influence various sample materials, and ways of handling the great number of dates in data bases. There will also be several overview talks on various disciplines.

## Crustal Extension

October 10-12, 1985 Conference on Heat and Detachment in Crustal Extension on Continents and Planets, Sedona, Ariz. Sponsors: Lunar and Planetary Institute, USGS, GSA, (Pat Jones, LPI Projects Office, Lunar and Planetary Institute, 3303 NASA Road 1, Houston, TX 77058; tel.: 713-486-2150.)

The abstract deadline is April 29, 1985. The conference is aimed at exploring the role of thermal and mechanical crustal decoupling in controlling the tectonic style of extension on terrestrial continents and solar planets, using field and laboratory data as well as modeling considerations.

Attendance is limited to 75 people; potential participants should contact LPI as soon as possible for inclusion on the mailing list.

## Meeting Report

## Crustal Observations Through Drilling

The use of the drill to probe the earth's crust, driven by primarily economic incentives, has come a long way since the first oil well at Titusville, Perm., began producing from a depth of 21 m in 1859. Wells have now been drilled to depths of over 12 km (in the Kola Peninsula of the Soviet Union), in rocks where the pressure of pore fluid exceeds the weight of the entire overburden, in rocks at temperatures exceeding 400°C, and even in molten basalt in Hawaiian pit craters flooded by recent lava flows. To compensate for the hostility of such environmental extremes, drilling for resources has become one of the most robust of modern technologies.

In the late 1960's, when the ocean floors were hypothesized to have originated at the midocean ridges and to be consumed at the deep trenches, drilling proved to be the ultimate test of the revolutionary theory of plate tectonics. Now, earth scientists, confronted by problems of the evolution of the continents and physicochemical processes currently active in shaping them, have begun using drilling as one of the most valuable of experimental tools in understanding the continental lithosphere.

The International Symposium on Observation of the Continental Crust Through Drilling, held May 20-23, 1984, in Tarrytown, N.Y., was organized by the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), the National Science Foundation (NSF), and the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) with several questions in mind. First, what are the major scientific problems that require drilling to provide the necessary observations and what results have already been achieved? Second, what are the current possibilities and limitations of drilling and logging? Finally, what have other nations accomplished, and how do we go about constructing a national program that must efficiently use the resources and expertise available from the U.S. oil industry?

The sessions occupied 4½ days, beginning with a review of national scientific drilling programs and concluding with a session involving participants from the oil industry who discussed the advantages of drilling scientific holes and the role of industrial scientists in a national scientific drilling program. The symposium organizing committee consisted of Barry Raleigh (chairman), Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory of Columbia University; Robert S. Anderson, National Research Council; John P. Herrmann, Brown University; William C. Luth, Sandia National Laboratories; Edward Schreiber, Queens College of

the City University of New York; Francis G. Stehli, University of Oklahoma; Samuel G. Varnado, NL Speer-Sun; Helmut Vidal, Bayerisches Geologisches Landesamt; and Mark D. Zoback, USGS.

There are currently efforts in West Germany, France, Belgium, Japan, the United Kingdom, Canada, Austria, and Sweden involving drilling for scientific purposes. Although for some countries the incentive may ultimately be economic in nature (e.g., coal in Belgium, oil in Austria), most of these programs are designed to extract information on the structure, composition, and physical and chemical properties of the crust. The Soviet Union operates the most ambitious program of scientific drilling, having reached 12 km depth in ancient crystalline basement and 8.5 km into a sedimentary basin. Other deep holes are being planned while the first ones are still being drilled.

Despite the differences in objectives, both planned efforts and active programs in all the countries have in common a sequence of events beginning with selection of scientific priorities. Geophysical and geological surveys designed to elucidate the geologic and thermal structure, leading ultimately to the choice of a drilling site, are followed by some relatively shallow drill holes of 1-2 km. Drilling is the culmination of a sequence of events leading to a geological evaluation of the most promising site based on criteria, which, in addition to the above, include a well-designed drilling plan.

The symposium was organized at a fortuitous time. It was clear that scientists worldwide have come to a remarkably congruent decision, quite independently, that penetrating the continents by direct sampling through drilling is the necessary next step to understanding the evolution of the earth.

The conferees pointed out some of the most interesting problems for which drilling could provide the answers. Scientists are now developing models of hydrothermal circulation and ore deposition that can be tested with information obtainable only from depth in active or fossil systems (R. Fournier, USGS; Jim Eichel, Coastal Mining). Convective circulation driven by heat derived from magmatic intrusions is a vast and fascinating chemical processing system. The development of the economically interesting by-products, bodies of ore, and geothermal resources depend on the form that convection cells take, which in turn depends on such issues as the solubility of brines, fracture permeability, and the storage capacity of the rock matrix.

Drilling wells of moderate depth in a few active silicic volcanic centers, such as the ones located at Yellowstone, the Imperial Valley, Long Valley, or the Valles Caldera, would provide extraordinarily useful information concerning the chemistry and the thermal and mass transfer mechanisms in convective hydrothermal systems.

John Ruddle of Sandia and Alan Ryall of the University of Nevada gave an excellent example of the use of data from surface measurements obtained from seismic arrays and from geologic leveling and dilatation at Long Valley, Calif., for modeling the location and motion of magma intrusion into the upper crust. Even a few holes to rather modest depth would serve to fix some of the parameters, such as stress, needed to constrain the models.

Bodies of ore, now parts of fossil hydrothermal systems, may yield some of the data fundamental to modeling such systems, provided that drilling to the roots of the hydrothermal convection cells can be conducted. Studies by Craig Bethke and others at the USGS of the Creede epithermal Ag-Pb-Zn, Cu ore district in Colorado have shown that the ores were deposited at the contact of surface waters with an underlying hot convecting brine. However, the source of heat, salinity of the fluid, and the concentration of sulfur and metals have not been investigated, and scientific drilling is required to reach the root zone in order to study these factors.

The deep structure of the continents, particularly in the mobile belts, has been investigated sufficiently in certain areas so that drilling is now needed to test the geological reconstructions. Several targets seem to be most attractive for drilling. The southern Appalachians, described by Robert Hatcher of the University of South Carolina, are the possible locus of at least two cycles of continental rifting and collision, which appear to have expression in seismic sections of very extensive, low-angle thrusting of crystalline rocks over Paleozoic sedimentary and metasedimentary rocks. To penetrate through to the autochthonous rocks requires drilling, perhaps to depths of 10 km. However, a drilling expert at the conference, Frank Schults (ARCO), was not daunted by the depth, given the rather benign environment expected. Other seismic reflection profiles in the western United States indicate low-angle thrusting, perhaps currently active, where drilling might lead to measurements of the properties which make such paradoxical structures possible. A word of caution about the interpretation of strong low-angle reflectors was sounded by George Thompson of Stanford University: A deep hole drilled for oil exploration through such a reflector in southern Arizona found a zone of apparent movement with granite both above and below the presumed overthrust.

## Berkner Memberships

## Free Memberships for Scientists in Countries of Developing Geophysics

Free membership for three years is being offered to scientists who have little or no access to AGU publications. Applicants may not be current members of AGU and must be at institutions where there is no more than one AGU member.

This program is a living memorial to Lloyd Berkner, whose devotion to the encouragement of young scientists and stimulation of international activities will long be remembered.

AGU members are encouraged to send names and addresses of such individuals to AGU so that applications and details can be forwarded. Applications and further details are available from:

Member Programs Department  
American Geophysical Union  
2000 Florida Avenue, N.W.  
Washington, D. C. 20009  
U.S.A.

Call 202-462-6903 in the U.S.  
or use Western Union Telex 710-822-9300.

Mark Zoback of the USGS (now at Stanford University) emphasized the paradoxical contrast between geophysical observations which suggest that earthquakes occur at low shear stress while the laboratory estimates from rock mechanic measurements suggest that much higher stresses should be required. Zoback has accumulated measurements of stress at less than 1 km depth which agree with the laboratory data but do not resolve the problem. The nature of the pre-earthquake failure process is poorly understood because of the absence of direct observation from hypocentral depths of the observations of stress, pore fluid pressure, permeability, etc., critical to understanding the phenomenon.

In summary, the scientific objectives for drilling fall into two general categories. The first is that of reconstructing the petrologic and tectonic history of the continental crust. Results already obtained from basement samples obtained by M. E. Bickford and W. R. Van Schmus of the University of Kansas from oil well drilling are beginning to extend our knowledge of the age and distribution of igneous activity of the ancient basement of the midcontinent. Lee Silver (Caltech) finds correlative Proterozoic ages of basement in California. However, better areal distribution than that currently available is needed. The oldest rocks of the continent exposed in Minnesota and Canada are also desirable targets for deep drilling to sample the deepest and oldest regions of the crust.

The second general category is the investigation of active processes, such as faulting, volcanism, rifting, metamorphism, and ore deposition. The array of physicochemical parameters needed to test existing models and the exploration necessary even to construct adequate models of these processes is not measurable from the surface. Inferences as to temperature, elastic properties, density, and electrical conductivity at depth are model dependent, and surface measurements lack the required resolution beyond the uppermost few kilometers of depth. It must be emphasized that the state of stress, the hydraulic diffusivity and storage capacity, the thermal diffusivity, pore fluid chemistry and pressure, the bulk, chemistry and phase composition of the rocks, their isotopic constitution and age, the state of fracturing, and the details of the elastic properties, density, temperature, and electromagnetic properties can only be measured in situ at depth and require drilling.

A triumph of the earth sciences that so much has been inferred about the crust from the meager surface information available.

A substantial part of the symposium dealt with the issues of how to measure the relevant parameters down hole, particularly where high temperatures render conventional technology unsuitable. Logging technology is quite advanced, although the requirements of a scientific drilling program are such that coring is required extensively. In deeper holes in hard rock, however, coring may be difficult and result in low recovery. Research on drilling, coring, and logging tools for hard rock scientific drilling is underway in industrial and government laboratories. High-temperature (>300°C) logging is also a major research and development effort of the DOE. Where core recovery is incomplete because of technical difficulty or high cost, there is reasonable expectation that logging methods can be used to fill in the gaps in information. Measurement of stress, fracture density, fluid pressure, and permeability have been conducted in boreholes at moderate depths but become more difficult in high-temperature wells. The Los Alamos group that is interested in recovery of geothermal power from hot dry rock reported on significant improvements in this technology for higher temperature regimes.

Gary Ohlroff and Jeff Daniels of the USGS, Roger Anderson of Lamont-Doherty, and Mark Mathews of Los Alamos made a strong case that most of the relevant physical properties can be measured through in situ measurements as well as or better than from core. New techniques are being developed to permit more complete mineralogical and geochemical information to be determined, although coring or sampling is still essential to allow for such critical measurements as bulk composition, radiometric ages, isotopic constitution, mineralogy, and also detailed geological information.

A considerable amount of scientific drilling has been under way in the United States, Iceland, Belgium, and of course, in the deep oceans through the Joint Oceanographic Institutions for Deep Earth Sampling (JOIDES) deep sea drilling program. Although in the United States a few holes of opportunity, drilled for other purposes, have made possible relatively inexpensive add-on experiments by groups of investigators, such holes cannot be exploited fully because of problems of timing, less than optimum location, or depth and other impediments. Geophysical drilling in Iceland, reported upon by Ingvar Fridleifsson, has provided a scientific bonus because of close coordination between the scientists and those drilling the holes. Similarly, in the program to test the feasibility of extracting thermal energy from hot dry rock at the Los Alamos National Laboratory, drilling has been closely tied to the needs of the scientists. John Rowley of Los Alamos described the remarkably successful efforts to drill and conduct downhole measurements in the deep and hostile environment of the hot Fenton Hill granite.

On Cyprus, where a slab of oceanic crust and upper mantle (ophiolite sequence) of island arc affinity has been thrust onto the island, drilling has been conducted by a multinational group with the goal of providing a complete section through the ophiolite. Paul Robinson of Ballistic University made the important point that the newly complete core recovery made possible a detailed description of the structure, stratigraphy, and petrologic variability that would not have been possible from any amount of field work alone.

Rose Fleeth of the University of Washington reviewed the remarkably successful Deep Sea Drilling Program. Recovery and preservation of the core has been one of the principal reasons for the program's success. Paleogeography, for example, is a new scientific offshoot of the drilling program which would have been impossible without nearly complete core recovery.

Sedimentary basins have been extensively drilled for commercial ventures, and consequently, the most subsurface data is available for this major structural feature of the continent. Nonetheless, commercial wells have been drilled with neither the minimum amount of core recovery required for scientific investigations, nor the full array of measurements downhole to constrain theoretical basin models. Downhole gravity, temperature, and thermal conductivity would be most useful in certain basins. At the close of the meeting, an open discussion on the interaction of oil industry scientists and engineers with academic and government scientists in a scientific drilling program led to several important points, including especially (1) the importance of obtaining as much information as possible from industry and other sources before drilling and (2) that the thorough design of a hole, particularly a deep well, is a costly but necessary preliminary to drilling. The oil industry participants agreed that a well-planned scientific drilling program would have great value.

The consensus that a national scientific drilling program is a timely and critical need

step for the earth sciences existed before the symposium. The symposium, in bringing together those who have already gained much experience in drilling, with the scientists who need the data from the crust's third dimension, was the first in what must be a series of dialogues. The existing technology of surface exploration drilling and downhole measurements can be brought to bear on several extremely important scientific problems without much additional engineering research and development. Where temperatures are moderate (<250°C) and the rocks encountered are reasonably stable mechanically, moderate to deep holes can provide fundamentally important observations on the evolution of the crust and the processes that have shaped the continents. There are, however, needs for new technological advances in coring, logging, and drilling in more hostile environments. The momentum of the DOE national laboratories in which technological development needs to be sustained if we are to address the important scientific problems of the nature of active hydrothermal systems, metamorphism and ore deposition. With the steady willing cooperation of the petroleum industry and academic scientists, the DOE, NSF, and USGS, a national program of continental scientific drilling appears to be moving forward.

This meeting report was contributed by Barry Raleigh, Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory of Columbia University, New York.

## Geophysical Year

A date at the end of an entry indicates the issue of Eos in which a full meeting announcement was run.

A list of abbreviations used in the Geophysical Year calendar appears at the end of the calendar.

**Future AGU Meetings:**  
**Fall Meetings**  
Dec. 9-13, 1985, San Francisco, California (abstracts due mid-September 1985)  
Dec. 8-12, 1986, San Francisco, California  
**Spring Meetings**  
May 27-31, 1985, Baltimore, Maryland (abstracts due early March 1985)  
May 19-23, 1986, Baltimore, Maryland  
**Regional Meetings**  
From Range Basin Hydrology Days  
April 16-18, 1985, Fort Collins, Colorado (abstracts due January 15, 1985 for poster and oral presentations)  
**Chapman Conferences**  
Solar Wind-Magnetosphere Coupling, February 12-15, 1985, Pasadena, California  
Ion Acceleration in the Ionosphere and Magnetosphere, June 3-7, 1985, Boston, Massachusetts  
Magnetospheric Physics, October 28-31, 1985, Lancaster, Maryland

## 1984

Dec. 16-21 International Chemical Congress of Pacific Basin Societies, Honolulu, Hawaii. Sponsors: ACS, Chemical Institute of Canada, Chemical Society of Japan, PAC-CHEM '84, Meetings and Divisional Activities Dept., ACS, 1155 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036; tel.: 202-872-4996; PAC-CHEM '84, Chemical Institute of Canada, 151 St. Louis, Suite 606, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5A5, Canada; tel.: 613-233-8023; PAC-CHEM '84, Chemical Society of Japan, 1-5, Kanda-Surugadai, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 101, Japan; tel.: 03-3292-6101 (Sept. 13, 1984)  
Dec. 17-21 Tectonic Studies Group 15th Annual General Meeting, Swansea, U.K. Sponsors: University College of Swansea, (Richard Lill, Dept. of Geology, University College, Swansea SA2 8PP, United Kingdom)  
Dec. 28-31 Fourth International Conference on Applied Numerical Modeling, Tsunan, Japan. (S. Y. Wang, School of Engineering, Univ. of Mississippi, University, MS 38677; tel.: 601-232-7215)

## 1985

Jan. 7-11 International Conference on Interactive Information and Processing Systems for Meteorology, Oceanography, and Hydrology, Los Angeles, Calif. Sponsors: American Meteorological Society, (Nancy Schiffman, SES Inc., 705-844-9472, Springfield, VA 22152; tel.: 703-844-9472)  
Jan. 7-12 17th International Congress on Hydrology of Rocks of Low Permeability, Tucson, Ariz. Sponsors: International Assoc. of Hydrogeologists, AGU, (E. S. Simpson, Dept. of Hydrology and Water Resources, College of Engineering, Univ. of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721)  
Jan. 7-11 International Conference on Interactive Information and Processing Systems for Meteorology, Oceanography, and Hydrology, Los Angeles, Calif. Sponsors: AMS, (G. Stanley, Office of the Federal Coordinator, 11426 Rockville Pike, Suite 300, Rockville, MD 20852; tel.: 301-443-8704) (Aug. 14, 1984)  
February International Symposium on Recent Coastal Movement, Maracaibo, Venezuela. Sponsors: IAG, (Reine Heinberg, Aparado, 6 Maracaibo, Venezuela; tel.: 0188)  
Feb. 4-8 National Conference on Water Resources Research, Chevy Chase, Md. Sponsors: University Council on Water Resources, (William L. Powers, Executive Secretary, United States Council on Water Resources, 310 Agricultural Hall, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE 68583-0711; tel.: 402-773-3305)  
Resources, Denver, Colo. Sponsors: IAG, (William R. Miller, Federal Center, Denver, CO 80225; tel.: 303-233-5538)  
Feb. 10-13 Australian Physical Oceanography Conference, Hobart, Tasmania. Sponsors: Marine Laboratories, (P.O. Box 1338, Hobart, Tasmania, Australia 7001) (Sept. 4, 1984)  
Feb. 12-15 Chapman Conference: Resource Management, Resource Consultants, Inc. P.O. Box Q, Fort Collins, CO 80522 (May 1, 1984)  
May Symposium on Second International Conference on Hydrothermal Alteration and Geothermal Resources, Palm Springs, Calif. Sponsors: Geothermal Resources Council, P.O. Box 1330, Davis, CA 95617-1330; tel.: 916-758-2300  
May 8-10 Second International Symposium on Tropical Hydrology, San Juan, Puerto Rico. Organizer: International Water Resources Association. (Fernando Quirones, U.S. Geological Survey, WRD, GPO Box 4624, San Juan, PR 00936; tel.: 809-783-4620) (Oct. 16, 1984)  
May 9-10 Symposium on Vertical Motion in the Equatorial Upper Ocean and its Effects on Living Resources and the Atmosphere, Paris, France. Sponsors: Scientific Committee on Oceanic Research, UNESCO, (David Halpern, NOAA PMEL, 7600 Sand Point Way, N.E., Seattle, WA 98115)  
May 9-11 Institute on Lake Superior Geology, Kenora, Canada. (C. E. Blackburn, ILSG Co-ordinator and Chairman, Resident Geologist, Ministry of Natural Resources, 808 Robinson St., PO Box 5080, Kenora, Ont. P0N 3X9 Canada; tel.: 807-468-9841)  
May 10-10 Symposium on Arctic Rifting, Arctic Structure, Calgary, Alberta, Canada. Sponsors: International Lithosphere Program, (John W. Pierce, Petro-Canada Resources, PO Box 2844, Calgary, Alberta T2P 3E3, Canada)  
May 12-10 (SEG-GEU National Convention-Geophysics: The Facts of Earth, Calgary, Canada. Sponsors: Canadian Society of Exploration Geophysicists, Canadian Geophysical Union, (Graham Millington, Canadian Society of Exploration Geophysicists, 335 4th Ave. SW, Calgary, Alberta T2P 0H9, Canada; tel.: 403-248-8800) (John Pierce, Petro-Canada, PO Box 2844, 150 4th Ave. NW, Calgary, Alberta T2P 3E3, Canada; tel.: 403-266-3911)  
May 13-17 17th International Liege Colloquium on Sea Hydrodynamics: Dynamic Biological Processes at Marine Physical Interfaces, Liege, Belgium. (Jacques C. J. Nihoul, Météo-Service, University of Liege, B5, Sart Tilman, B-4000, Liege, Belgium)  
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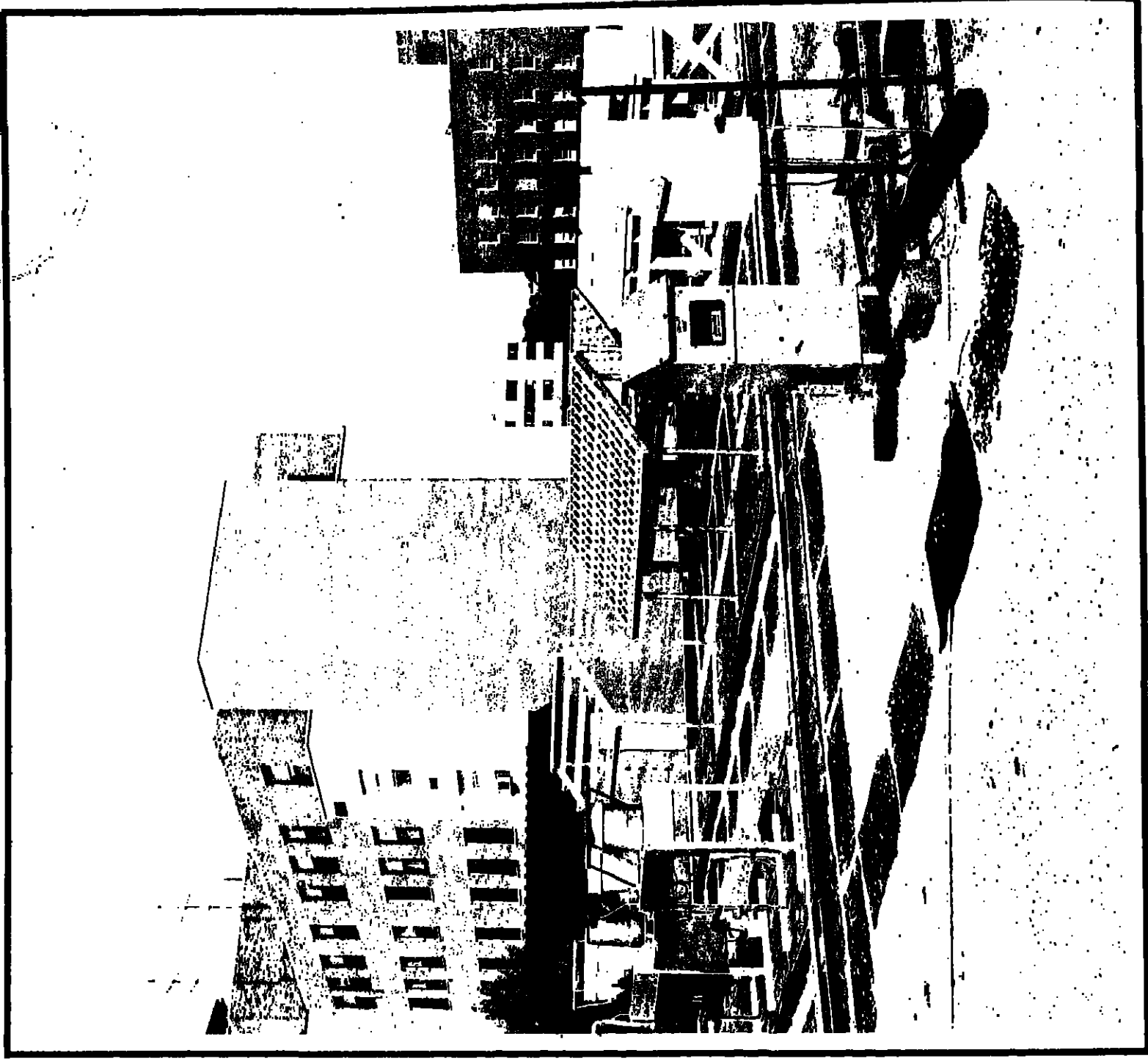
Transactions, American Geophysical Union  
Vol. 65 No. 50 December 11, 1984

# EOS

Eos, Transactions, American Geophysical Union

Vol. 65, No. 50, Pages 1209 - 1224

December 11, 1984



## Tectonophysics

**8110 Convection Currents**  
**AN EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH TO THERMAL CONVECTION IN A TWO-LAYERED MANTLE**  
P. Olson (Dept. of Earth & Planetary Sciences, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21218)  
If the 650 km discontinuity marks a compositional boundary, as has been suggested, then the upper and lower mantle may be convecting separately. A series of laboratory experiments on two-layered convection were made in order to determine how thermal convection interacts with a stable density discontinuity. The convection fluid consisted of two superposed layers of GLUCHE 1132 syrup, a glucose solution with a Newtonian viscosity which depends strongly on temperature. The initial density contrast between layers ranged from 0.5% to 8%. A uniform heat flux was supplied to the base of the lower layer. By varying the heat flux, Rayleigh numbers between  $10^4$  and  $10^6$  were obtained. In every case, two-layered convection was observed, but in no case did a steady state result. Instead, a slow mixing between the layers occurred, driven by viscous stresses acting on the density interface. The mixing rate was provided by convective eddies which entrained fluid across the discontinuity in the form of thin filaments. Mixing continued until the density contrast across the discontinuity became small enough to permit overturning. The mixing rate was determined by monitoring changes in dye concentration in each layer. It is found that the mixing rate is governed by the bulk Richardson number  $Ri$ , a measure of the ratio of between interfacial buoyancy and viscous forces. Mixing rate data from experiments covering the range  $80 < Ri < 3500$  are consistent with a power law of the form  $Ri^{-1/2}$ .

where  $\rho$  is the density jump across the discontinuity and  $\eta$  is the viscosity. The scale for convective strain rate. Applying this mixing law to the mantle indicates that mass exchange between the upper and lower mantle could occur by this mechanism at a rate of  $10^{18}$  -  $10^{19}$  kg per million years. Convectively driven entrainment across the 650 km density discontinuity can provide a mechanism for interaction between the upper and lower mantle and may be an important source of mantle heterogeneity.

I. Geophysics, 1000 N. 1st St., San Francisco, CA 94103.  
**8110 Structure of the Lithosphere**  
**STRUCTURAL DISCONTINUITIES BETWEEN DETACHMENTS AND THE TECTONIC FRONT, CENTRAL MOUNTAINS, SOUTHERN MOUNTAINS**  
H. J. Aldrich (Department of Geological Sciences, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 02138), J. Douglas (Department of Earth & Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 02139)  
Detailed geologic mapping in the Horn Mountains of southern Nevada provides insight into the processes of extensional tectonics developed within older compressional orogens. A newly discovered, NW-trending, low-angle normal fault, the Neogene Peak detachment, juxtaposes the highest levels of the frontal part of the most-vergent, Mesozoic Sevier thrust belt with autochthonous crystalline basement. Petrographic analysis suggests that the detachment is initially dipped 20-25° to the west and cut discordantly across the Sevier thrusts. However, complete lateral removal of the hanging wall from the area has exposed a 5 km thick longitudinal cross-section through the shear belt to the footwall, while highly attenuated remnants of the hanging wall elsewhere were then a few hundred meters thick, structurally overlying the range. The present arcuate configuration of the detachment, parallel to part of the previously "Sanon-style" rotation of a few degrees while it was active, but to largely due to rotation on a hinge, associated with a low-angle, east-west-trending normal fault that initiated at high-angle.

The geometry and kinematics of normal faulting in the Horn Mountains suggest that pre-existing thrust planes are not required for the initiation of low-angle normal faults, and even where closely overlapped by extensional tectonics, need not be a primary control of detachment geometry. Caution must thus be exercised in interpreting low-angle normal faults of uncertain tectonic heritage such as those seen in the COCORP west-central Utah and NIPY's 20151 deep-reflection profiles. Although thrust fault reactivation has reasonably been shown to be the origin of a very few low-angle normal faults, our results indicate that it may not be a fundamental component of orogenic architecture as it is now widely perceived to be. We conclude that while in many instances thrust fault reactivation may be both a plausible and attractive hypothesis, it may never be assumed.

Tectonics, Paper 470192  
**8170 Structure of the Lithosphere**  
**THE SHANKS RANGE DECOLLEMENT INTERPRETED AS A MAJOR EXTENSIONAL SHEAR ZONE**  
J. H. Bartley (Department of Geology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina, 27514) and S. P. Haxel

Geological and geophysical constraints suggest that the Shanks Range decollement of east-central Nevada is a major Tertiary low-angle normal fault zone. This interpretation is consistent with all existing data, and alleviates problems that result if large displacements across the decollement are excluded (Fisher et al., *Tectonics*, 3, 239-263, 1983). We have constructed cross sections that suggest approximately 60 km of normal displacement on the decollement. The implications of this interpretation over models that exclude large displacement are that it: (1) provides for overburden consistent with K-feldspar grade metamorphism of footwall rocks, (2) predicts reasonable crustal thicknesses before and after extension without involving unproven mantle-derived Tertiary intrusions at depth, and (3) explains contrasting metamorphism and structural styles of hanging wall and footwall without requiring an extreme geothermal gradient during regional metamorphism and extensional strain.

(extensional tectonics, Great Basin, low-angle normal faults).

Tectonics, Paper 470193

**8198 General (Colorado Plateau Boundary)**  
**A MODEL FOR THE TECTONIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA PLATEAU**  
H. J. Aldrich (H.J. Aldrich, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, New Mexico, 87545), A. H. Laughlin  
Stratigraphic data show that the contemporary tectonic boundary of the southeastern Colorado Plateau is coincident with the segment of the Juan Lineament between the White Mountains in north-central Arizona and the Jemez Mountains in north-central New Mexico. The lineament is a broad (500 km wide) tectonically active zone that trends N-52°E, and approximately coincides with a Franciscan province boundary. It is characterized by normal, strike-slip, and thrust faults, and both normal and strike-slip faulting. Pliocene-Quaternary normal oblique-slip displacements have been observed on faults within and south of the lineament but not north of it. Late Tertiary NW-SE compression, which caused the tectonic oblique-slip faulting throughout the region, apparently was transformed into late-slip along the Juan Lineament. As the Franciscan basement was exhumed, a belt of NW-trending, low-angle, NW-trending faults developed in the overlying Franciscan sedimentary strata. By the end of the Tertiary (ca. 40 Ma), the lineament was a belt of NW-trending, low-angle, NW-trending faults. Volcanism in the San Joaquin Hills volcanic field began after the cessation of late-slip faulting. The lineament is a tectonic boundary that separates the Franciscan basement from the overlying sedimentary strata. These elevated temperatures further weakened the part of the hanging wall of the lineament south of the Jemez

lineament so that with the onset of NW-SE extension in the southern Basin and Range Province, about 30 Ma ago, this area deformed in response to the extension than to the stress field of the Plateau interior. The emplacement of large NW-trending dikes into the area between 27 and 29 Ma ago was directly related to this extensional event. During the late Miocene the direction of spreading changed to a W and NW orientation allowing the Colorado Plateau to begin a small clockwise rotation. Oblique left-slip and extension occurred across the Jemez lineament. Major volcanism on the lineament was initiated by the change in spreading direction. Volcanic activity started at the western plate first, where the lineament is intersected by the Rio Grande Rift (Jemez Mountains) and Capitan lineament (White Mountains). With increasing extension across the lineament between 7 to 4 Ma ago the NW-trending faulting opened, and by the earliest Pliocene (ca. 5 Ma ago) volcanism was occurring along the entire southeastern tectonic boundary (Jemez lineament) of the Colorado Plateau.

J. Geophys. Res., 89, Paper 480951

**8199 General Tectonophysics**  
**THE YAGUT RIDGE ANTIFORM AND DETACHMENT FAULT, MID-CENOZOIC EXTENSIONAL TERRANE WEST OF THE SAN ANDREAS FAULT**

P. A. Schaltegger (Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093)  
The Yagut Ridge antiform and detachment fault in southern Barrage Valley, California, exemplifies the nature of detached terranes in south central California. The detachment fault dips 10°-40° to the north and northeast, and separates a lower core of Quaternary Late Cretaceous granitoid rocks from an unconformable, metamorphosed megabreccia of probable Eocene to Late Oligocene age. Pelitic rocks in the lower plate generally conform to the strike and dip of the overlying detachment fault, and become less distinct away from the fault. The megabreccia which forms the upper plate is composed of unsorted, fairly well-sorted clasts characteristic of batholithic and metasedimentary rocks of the region. Plio-Pleistocene lacustrine sediments unconformably overlie the megabreccia in some areas. The detachment fault itself forms a thin veneer over a 10 m band of intensely sheared cataclasis. A chlorite-breccia zone occurs below the cataclasis and gradually grades into the pelitic granulite. A left-oblique-slip shear zone cuts through the detachment. Ridge antiform. Four tectonic episodes are apparent at Yagut Ridge: (1) Late Cretaceous synkinematic mylonitization and metamorphism, forming a regional NW-trending foliation and NW-trending mineral lineation; (2) Mid-Cretaceous shallow, low temperature detachment faulting; (3) Late Miocene-Early Pliocene, parallel to Yagut oblique-slip faulting; (4) Pliocene high-angle faulting and folding. (Detachment faults, low-temperature, south central California).

Tectonics, Paper 470191

**8199 General (Tectonophysics)**  
**LATE MESOZOIC AND CENOZOIC TECTONIC HISTORY OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA**  
A. E. J. Engel (Scripps Institution of Oceanography, La Jolla, California 92093), and P. A. Schaltegger  
The late Mesozoic-Cenozoic history of south central California is punctuated by at least five major tectonic events. The oldest of these involves Late Cretaceous folding and thrusting of uppermost sedimentary sequences over and to the north along the rising eastern margin of the Peninsular Ranges Batholith. A second, distinct episode is superimposed upon the Late Cretaceous structural features, and involves low T and P, mid-Tertiary detachment faulting. This represents the westerly extension of the detachment terranes of California and western Arizona. The Late Cretaceous and detachment faults are further disrupted by both left-lateral and right-lateral faulting during the late Cenozoic. This faulting is accompanied by oblique-slip faulting, dip-slip faulting, and folding which continues into Holocene times. Many of the most representative features include the compressional strain in south central California (thrusting, detachment faults).

Tectonics, Paper 470190